



Short note

A simple filter for detecting low-rank submatrices

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ABSTRACT

We present a simple algorithm for detecting low-rank submatrices from within a much larger matrix. This algorithm relies on a basic geometric property of high-dimensional space: random 2-d projections of eccentric gaussian distributions are typically concentrated in opposite quadrants of the plane.

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1. Introduction

Many techniques for data-analysis and matrix-compression take advantage of the reduction of dimensionality which can be attained if a submatrix within a larger matrix has low numerical-rank [1–10]. A natural question is: given a large matrix, how can one quickly detect submatrices with low numerical-rank? In this paper we present a very simple algorithm for detecting the largest submatrix C of low numerical-rank $k \sim 1 - 5$ within a larger matrix A which is given as data.

The core of the algorithm itself is very simple: Given a large $n \times m$ matrix A , we first form the 'binary' matrix B by sending each entry of A to either +1 or -1, depending on its sign. Then we form $Z^{\text{row}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ by taking the diagonal entries of $BB^T BB^T$, and we form $Z^{\text{col}} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ by taking the diagonal entries of $B^T BB^T B$. We then eliminate the rows and columns of A for which Z^{row} and Z^{col} are small, and repeat this entire process. Eventually, after repeating this process multiple times, we will eliminate almost all the rows and columns of A , retaining only those rows and columns which form the low-rank submatrix C .

This algorithm makes use of the following geometric feature of high dimensional space: a random planar projection of an eccentric gaussian distribution is typically concentrated in non-adjacent quadrants. This fact implies that 2×2 submatrices of B (referred to as 'loops' in the following sections) contain substantial information about C , and that rows and columns of C will correspond to large values of Z^{row} and Z^{col} .

There are other approaches to finding certain kinds of low-rank submatrices, such as nuclear norm minimization [11] and adaptive dissection of projective space [12]. The advantages of the approach presented in this paper include:

- Ease of implementation: this entire algorithm can be implemented with a loop comprising two matrix multiplications, requiring only a few lines of Matlab code.
- Reasonable efficiency: this algorithm requires only a handful of matrix multiplications, incurring a complexity of $O(mn \min(m, n))$ along with a low constant factor.
- Flexibility: this algorithm can be easily tailored to a variety of applications in data-analysis.

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An inevitable disadvantage of the approach presented in this paper is that it is not always guaranteed to work; the underlying submatrix detection problem is NP-hard [13,14]. However, under rather general conditions this scheme will detect any sufficiently large C with high probability. Importantly, this algorithm still often succeeds even when C is very small relative to A (e.g., of size $\sim \sqrt{n} \times \sqrt{m}$).

In the remainder of this paper we provide a justification and full description of this algorithm, as well as examples.

2. Detecting a low-rank submatrix

Generally speaking, there is one basic problem we will consider. This problem involves finding the largest submatrix of low numerical-rank from within a larger matrix. This problem (stated formally below) is often called the ‘biclustering’ problem in data-analysis [15,16].

Problem 1. Assume that we are given an $n \times m$ matrix A , and that an $n_C \times m_C$ submatrix C of A has low numerical-rank k (i.e., $k \leq 5$). Assuming that C is the largest such submatrix within A , is it possible to find C quickly?

First we will discuss a geometric feature of high-dimensional space, and then we will discuss how to use this feature to solve Problem 1.

2.1. Planar projections of eccentric gaussian distributions are concentrated in non-adjacent quadrants

First let us define the ‘binarization operator’.

Definition 2. The operator $\mathbb{B}[\cdot]$ replaces each entry of its input with either +1 or –1, depending on its sign.

So, for example, $\mathbb{B}([3.1, -0.5]) = [+1, -1]$.

Now let us define what we mean by ‘numerical-rank’:

Definition 3. A matrix is of numerical-rank k with ‘error’ ε if the $(k+1)$ st singular-value σ_{k+1} of this matrix is equal to $\varepsilon\sigma_k$, where σ_k is the k th singular-value of the matrix.

Definition 4. A gaussian-distribution ρ on $\mathbb{R}^m$ is of numerical-rank k with error ε if the $(k+1)$ st principal-value of ρ is equal to ε times the k th principal-value of ρ .

The error ε is a measure of how well the matrix or distribution under consideration can be approximated within a k -dimensional subspace. If $\varepsilon = 0$, then the matrix or distribution is exactly rank- k .

One simple fact about distributions with low numerical-rank is that, when projected onto a randomly oriented 2-dimensional plane, most of the mass of these distributions lies within non-adjacent quadrants. To make this statement more precise, let us assume that the gaussian distribution ρ is a randomly oriented ε -error rank- k distribution on $\mathbb{R}^m$ with k principal-values equal to 1, and $m-k$ principal-values equal to ε . Let us assume that $P^{2-m} : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is an orthogonal projection onto a plane, such as 2 arbitrary rows or columns of the $m \times m$ identity-matrix. The distribution $\tilde{\rho} = P^{2-m}\rho$ is a distribution on $\mathbb{R}^2$. Let v_1 and v_2 be two vectors drawn independently from $\tilde{\rho}$. Let us define $g_{\varepsilon,k,m}$ to be the probability that v_1 and v_2 lie in non-adjacent quadrants of $\mathbb{R}^2$. This probability $g_{\varepsilon,k,m}$ can also be thought of as the probability that $\mathbb{B}(v_1) \parallel \mathbb{B}(v_2)$.

We can estimate $g_{\varepsilon,k,m}$, and state the following.

Claim 5. $g_{\varepsilon,k,m}$ is substantially greater than 1/2 when k is not too large, and $\varepsilon < 1/\sqrt{m}$.

This claim is illustrated in Fig. 1, which shows plots of $g_{\varepsilon,k,m}$ for $k = 1, \dots, 6$. For small fixed k and large m the value $g_{\varepsilon,k,m}$ is essentially determined by the product $\varepsilon\sqrt{m}$, and is significantly greater than 1/2 as long as $\varepsilon\sqrt{m} \lesssim 1$ (as discussed further in Appendix A.2). The Claim 5 has many useful ramifications, some of which we will discuss later in Section 2.2. Note that, when $k = 1$ and $\varepsilon = 0$, the distribution ρ is a line, and since any planar projection of a line is still a line, the probability $g_{0,1,m} = 1$. If $k \gg 1$ and ε is close to 1, then the distribution ρ is nearly spherical, and any planar projection of ρ will be roughly uniformly distributed, implying that $g_{k,\varepsilon,m} \sim 1/2$. Importantly however, as long as k and ε are both small, then $g_{\varepsilon,k,m}$ is significantly greater than 1/2.

Note also that, since ρ is randomly oriented, $g_{\varepsilon,k,m}$ can be thought of as the probability that any 2×2 submatrix of $\mathbb{B}([v_1, v_2])$ is rank-1, rather than rank-2. Since we will refer to these types of submatrices frequently, we will refer to a 2×2 submatrix as a ‘loop’.

2.2. Interpretations of Claim 5

Claim 5 can be used to justify the algorithm presented later in this paper (see Section 3). The basic observation is that, when considering Problem 1, a loop (i.e., a 2×2 submatrix) of $\mathbb{B}(C)$ is more likely to be rank-1 (and less likely to be rank-2) than a loop of $\mathbb{B}(A)$ is.

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